

Outgroup selection in tree reconstruction: a case study of the family Halictidae (Hymenoptera: Apoidea)

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Abstract: An outgroup roots a network to form a tree and/or to infer hypothetical ancestral character states. Usually, multiple taxa of a closely related sister group of the ingroup are selected. To empirically evaluate the choice of outgroup, we implemented three strategies of outgroup selection: a single taxon from the sister group, multiple taxa within the sister group, and multiple taxa from successive sister groups. Subsequently, we evaluated their effects on tree topologies within the family Halictidae (Hymenoptera: Apoidea) incorporating three tree reconstruction methods: maximum likelihood, maximum parsimony and Bayesian inference. The use of multiple taxa within the sister group produced more consistent results than the other two outgroup strategies. The tree topologies were generally consistent with the putative tree topology of Halictidae. Compared with the other two tree reconstruction methods, maximum parsimony produced more consistent results with different outgroup strategies, yet often obtained less resolution.

Key words: Halictidae; homoplasy; monophyly; outgroup; sister group; phylogeny

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Importance of outgroup selection

As rigorous methods of tree reconstruction developed, they were widely applied in phylogenetics, molecular ecology, bioconservation, disease control, DNA barcoding and other fields (Cavalli-Sforza and Edwards, 1967; Phillips *et al.*, 2000; Sanderson and Shaffer, 2002). Phylogenies are hypotheses of relationships. The strength of the hypotheses depends on the assumptions of each method of phylogenetic inference. Various assumptions and factors exert effects on tree topologies whether the target organisms include prokaryotes or eukaryotes. For DNA sequence data, the factors can include taxon sampling, alignment methodology, gene selection, gene sequence length, data treatment, optimality criterion, parameter values and others (Smith, 1994; Dalevi *et al.*, 2001;

Cameron *et al.*, 2004; Ware *et al.*, 2008). Among these explicit and implicit factors, outgroup selection is usually inadequately considered. Apparently, outgroup selection is often arbitrary or based on obscure relationships between outgroup and ingroup taxa (Lyons-Weiler *et al.*, 1998; Sanderson and Shaffer, 2002; Cameron *et al.*, 2004).

Traditionally, an outgroup serves to root unrooted networks and/or to infer hypothetical ancestral states (Watrous and Wheeler, 1981; Maddison *et al.*, 1984; Wheeler, 1990; Smith, 1994; Lyons-Weiler *et al.*, 1998; Sanderson and Shaffer, 2002). The ingroup should not be studied in isolation. Outgroup selection is critical because topology of the ingroup tree can vary with the choice of outgroup taxa (Milinkovitch and Lyons-Weiler, 1998; Tarrio *et al.*, 2000; Cameron *et al.*, 2004; Ware *et al.*, 2008). For example, using the Mollusca + Annelida as an outgroup of Arthropoda, Nardi *et al.* (2003) challenged the traditional concept of Hexapoda forming a monophyletic clade. However, when different taxa were used as

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outgroup, the phylogeny of Nardi *et al.* (2003) was not consistently obtained (Cameron *et al.*, 2004). In addition, the research of Ware *et al.* (2008) on the relationships for Dictyoptera showed that outgroup selection influenced tree topologies to the extent that unexpected placements were obtained for some taxa.

1.2 Strategies of outgroup selection

Outgroup selection usually conforms to several principles. Whenever possible, the outgroup should be outside of, but closely related to the ingroup, and preferably the sister group of the ingroup, and the outgroup should contain more than one taxon; these guidelines help to avoid erroneous phylogenetic signals that can result in “random outgroup effect” and long branch attraction (LBA) sometimes associated with root placement (Watrous and Wheeler, 1981; Maddison *et al.*, 1984; Wheeler, 1990; Tarrio *et al.*, 2000; Dalevi *et al.*, 2001; Graham *et al.*, 2002; Sanderson and Shaffer, 2002; Cameron *et al.*, 2004; Bergsten, 2005). Nevertheless, the use of a closely related sister group may not always lead to the correct hypothesis of phylogenetic relationships, especially when evolutionary rates are relatively high (Lyons-Weiler *et al.*, 1998; Sanderson and Shaffer, 2002), or there is only a single taxon in the sister group (Smith, 1994; Sanderson and Shaffer, 2002).

Among the previous studies investigating outgroup selection for tree reconstruction, Smith (1994) proposed three general strategies of outgroup selection specifically for rooting molecular trees: a single taxon outgroup, multiple taxa within a single sister group, and single taxa from successive sister groups. He pointed out that, compared with the other two strategies, the option of multiple taxa within a single sister group was theoretically better based on his viewpoints of tree balance and homoplasy. This suggestion was corroborated by his empirical test of the echinoids (the ingroup). However, this test nowadays seems to be unconvincing because of insufficient data (six taxa) and several methodological concerns (*e.g.*, no statistical test for nodal strength, and compounding factors affecting tree topologies). Our study followed these three strategies while investigating phylogenetic relationships within the family Halictidae. Because it is unlikely to encounter a relative rate speedup in the sister group (Sanderson and Shaffer, 2002), we just assumed this has not occurred.

1.3 Phylogenetic relationships of the Halictidae

The monophyletic family Halictidae (Hymenoptera: Apoidea) is a group of short-tongued (S-T) bees. It is the second largest family in Apoidea with more than 4 150 described species (http://pick14.pick.uga.edu/mp/20q?guide=Apoidea_species), of which some species are the commonest bees (Packer and Taylor, 1997; Alexander and

Michener, 1995; Michener, 2000). Other than the genus *Apis* (Apidae), halictids dominate other bees in numbers of individuals in many temperate areas (Michener, 2000). The great diversity in social behavior has made them a model group for studying social evolution (Danforth *et al.*, 2008).

Generally, Halictidae contains four monophyletic subfamilies: Halictinae, Rophitinae, Nomiinae and Nomioidinae. Although this subfamily classification is not universally accepted, their phylogenetic relationships are supported by both morphological and molecular evidence (Pesenko, 1999; Michener, 2000; Danforth *et al.*, 2004; 2008). The generally accepted subfamily level relationships are as follows: (Rophitinae (Nomiinae (Nomioidinae + Halictinae))). At the family level, Halictidae, Colletidae and Andrenidae of S-T bees are putatively monophyletic, but Stenotritidae is resolved either branching off within or as the sister group of Colletidae (Michener, 2000; Danforth *et al.*, 2006, 2006b). The phylogenetic relationships among them are as follows: (Andrenidae (Halictidae (Colletidae + Stenotritidae))) (Danforth *et al.*, 2006a, 2006b). In the long-tongued bees composed of the Megachilidae and the Apidae, the Megachilidae is monophyletic and falls outside of the family Halictidae (Danforth *et al.*, 2006a, 2006b).

Herein, we investigate the effect of outgroup selection on the construction of trees using a molecular phylogenetic analysis of Halictidae. Our outgroup selection strategies involve the sister groups of Halictidae as follows: Strategy I, a single taxon in the sister group, but one that differs from Smith's (1994) single taxon outgroup; Strategy II, multiple taxa within the sister group, which is similar to Smith's grouping; Strategy III, multiple taxa from successive sister groups, different from his use of a single taxon from successive sister groups. Tree topologies derived from datasets with different strategies of outgroup selection would serve to evaluate the effects of outgroup selection.

2 METHODS AND MATERIALS

2.1 Gene marker

The gene 28S rDNA D2-D3 was used as the molecular marker because of its large proportion of potentially phylogenetically informative characters (Hancock and Dover, 1988; Hancock *et al.*, 1988; Tautz *et al.*, 1988) and widespread implementation to infer higher level relationships (De Rijk *et al.*, 1995; Schnare *et al.*, 1996; Danforth *et al.*, 2006a, 2006b). A moderate number of D2-D3 sequences from the family Halictidae and related taxa were taken from GenBank (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>).

2.2 Taxa and datasets

Table 1 lists the taxa and GenBank accession numbers. For the family Halictidae, all 24 D2-D3 sequences available in GenBank (till 6/27/2008) were used as the ingroup. This sampling included its four subfamilies: Halictinae (6), Nomiinae (8), Nomioidinae (1) and Rophitinae (9). The outgroup included four taxa representing three of the four

subfamilies of Andrenidae, seven taxa representing seven subfamilies of Colletidae, and three taxa representing two subfamilies of Megachilidae. These outgroup taxa were all chosen randomly to represent their taxonomic group. Besides, there was only one taxon from GenBank to represent the family Stenotritidae. All other apoids other than halictids can be used as potential outgroup members to Halictidae.

Table 1 Taxonomic diversity and nucleotide sequences obtained from GenBank used to investigate the effect of outgroup selection

| Families | Subfamilies | Species | GenBank accession no. | Taxon no. |
|---------------|----------------|--|-----------------------|-----------|
| Halictidae | Halictinae | <i>Agapostemon tyleri</i> | AY654506 | IG 1 |
| | Halictinae | <i>Augochlorella pomoniella</i> | AY654507 | IG 2 |
| | Halictinae | <i>Halictus rubicundus</i> | AY654510 | IG 3 |
| | Halictinae | <i>Sphecodes pecosensis</i> | DQ072154 | IG 4 |
| | Halictinae | <i>Sphecodes</i> sp. Spsp1055 | DQ072155 | IG 5 |
| | Halictinae | <i>Patellapis</i> (<i>Zonalictus</i>) sp. BND-2006 | DQ060870 | IG 6 |
| | Nomiinae | <i>Dieunomia heteropoda</i> | DQ072151 | IG 7 |
| | Nomiinae | <i>Dieunomia nevadensis</i> | AY654512 | IG 8 |
| | Nomiinae | <i>Dieunomia nevadensis</i> | DQ060852 | IG 9 |
| | Nomiinae | <i>Lipotriches patellifera</i> | DQ072146 | IG 10 |
| | Nomiinae | <i>Macronomia aureozonata</i> | DQ072149 | IG 11 |
| | Nomiinae | <i>Nomia tetrazonata</i> | DQ072152 | IG 12 |
| | Nomiinae | <i>Pseudapis obesula</i> | DQ060868 | IG 13 |
| | Nomiinae | <i>Pseudapis unidentata</i> | AY654514 | IG 14 |
| | Nomioidinae | <i>Nomiooides facilis</i> | AY654511 | IG 15 |
| | Rophitinae | <i>Conanthalictus conanthi</i> | DQ072144 | IG 16 |
| | Rophitinae | <i>Conanthalictus wilmattae</i> | AY654508 | IG 17 |
| | Rophitinae | <i>Dufourea mulleri</i> | AY654509 | IG 18 |
| | Rophitinae | <i>Penapis penai</i> | AY654513 | IG 19 |
| | Rophitinae | <i>Rophites algirus</i> | AY654515 | IG 20 |
| | Rophitinae | <i>Rophites algirus</i> | DQ072159 | IG 21 |
| | Rophitinae | <i>Systropha curvicornis</i> | AY654516 | IG 22 |
| | Rophitinae | <i>Systropha glabriventris</i> | DQ072156 | IG 23 |
| | Rophitinae | <i>Xeralictus bicuspidaiae</i> | AY654517 | IG 24 |
| Andrenidae | Andreninae | <i>Andrena nasonii</i> | DQ060849 | OG 25 |
| | Oxaeinae | <i>Protoxaea gloriosa</i> | AY654480 | OG 26 |
| | Panurginae | <i>Calliopsis subalpinus</i> | DQ060850 | OG 27 |
| | Panurginae | <i>Protandrena nanulus</i> | DQ060857 | OG 28 |
| Colletidae | Colletinae | <i>Colletes graeffei</i> | EF363690 | OG 29 |
| | Diphaglossinae | <i>Caupolicana vestita</i> | AY654486 | OG 30 |
| | Euryglossinae | <i>Euryglossina globuliceps</i> | AY654490 | OG 31 |
| | Hylaeinae | <i>Hylaeus proximus</i> | AY654493 | OG 32 |
| | Paracolletinae | <i>Leioproctus irroratus</i> | AY654495 | OG 33 |
| | Scaptininae | <i>Scapter niger</i> | AY654501 | OG 34 |
| | Xeromalissinae | <i>Chilimelissa rozeni</i> | AY654481 | OG 35 |
| Megachilidae | Fideliinae | <i>Fidelia major</i> | AY654539 | OG 36 |
| | Megachilinae | <i>Lithurgus apicalis</i> | DQ072145 | OG 37 |
| | Megachilinae | <i>Megachile pugnata</i> | AY654543 | OG 38 |
| Stenotritidae | - | <i>Stenotritus</i> sp. | AY654503 | OG 39 |

IG denotes ingroup taxa, while OG denotes outgroup taxa.

Four datasets were generated using the three strategies of outgroup selection (Table 2). Considering the family level relationships within the superfamily Apoidea, Stenotritidae (dataset I, 25 taxa) was selected to be the outgroup of Strategy I. Strategy II used Colletidae + Stenotritidae (dataset II, 32 taxa) as the outgroup. Strategy

III contained Andrenidae + Colletidae + Stenotritidae (dataset III-a, 36 taxa) and Andrenidae + Colletidae + Megachilidae + Stenotritidae (dataset III-b, 39 taxa) as the outgroup. We also used seven extended datasets, in each of which one species from the seven taxa (as above) of Colletidae was used as the outgroup.

Table 2 Four standard datasets and extended datasets in the study of the effect of outgroup selection

| Code | Standard datasets | | | | Extended datasets | | | | |
|------|-------------------|-----------------|------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------|
| | I Taxa | II IG + (39) | III-a I + (29 – 35) | III-b II + (25 – 28) | III-a + (36 – 38) | I-a IG + (29) | I-b IG + (30) | I-c IG + (31) | |

I, II, and III correspond to the three strategies of outgroup selection. Numbers in parentheses correspond to outgroup taxon numbers in Table 1.

2.3 Sequence alignments

All sequences (Table 1) were prepared for multiple sequence alignment. To avoid an alignment being dependent on the removed taxon sequence (Cameron *et al.*, 2004), 24 sequences of the Halictidae in combination with sequences of outgroup taxa/taxon were independently aligned using ClustalW (Thompson *et al.*, 1994) with default parameters. A final adjustment was made by eye. The end regions were truncated to ensure that only the D2-D3 region was used, with reference to the 28S rDNA sequence from the honey bee, *Apis mellifera* (Gillespie *et al.*, 2006). Alignment statistics were evaluated using PAUP* v. 4.0b10 (Swofford, 2002).

2.4 Tree reconstruction

Phylogenetic analysis was performed with both PAUP* v. 4.0b10 (Swofford, 2002) and MrBayes v. 3.1.2 (Huelsenbeck and Ronquist, 2001) for each of the standard datasets (I, II, III-a, III-b). For the extended datasets, Bayesian inference was not feasible because of long computation times.

Maximum likelihood Modeltest v. 3.7 (Posada and Crandall, 1998; Posada and Buckley, 2004) was first employed to select the appropriate DNA substitution model for our aligned NEXUS files. After the favored model (TVM + I + G) and certain parameter values as a block appended to the original NEXUS files, the analyses were performed in PAUP* v. 4.0b10 (Swofford, 2002). They were analyzed using heuristic analysis under the criterion of likelihood with 100 random addition sequence replications and tree bisection reconnection (TBR) branch swapping. We generally got one maximum likelihood (ML) tree for each dataset.

Maximum parsimony Trees were generated by PAUP* v. 4.0b10 (Swofford, 2002). The heuristic search involved 2 000 random addition sequence

replications under tree bisection reconnection (TBR) branch swapping. A 50% majority rule consensus tree was used for comparison (MP tree).

Bayesian inference First, MrModeltest v. 2.2 (Nylander, 2004; Posada and Buckley, 2004) was specifically employed to select the appropriate DNA substitution model for Bayesian inference (BI). Two independent Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) analyses of 10 million iterations were performed in MrBayes v. 3.1.2, each with 4 chains, three hot, one cold, sampling one tree per 100 iterations (Huelsenbeck and Ronquist, 2001). The “sumt” command together with “burnin = 25 000 (25% of the samples)” was used to determine the appropriate “burnin”. If the parameters summarized showed that the potential scaled reduction factor (PSRF) was reasonably close to 1.0, “sumt burnin = 25 000” was then used to pool trees after discarding the “burnin”.

2.5 Statistical analysis

Nonparametric bootstrapping was employed to estimate branch support of the MP and the ML trees. For the MP trees, we used 1 000 replications. For the ML trees, due to the huge computation times required, we used 500 replications. BI Posterior probabilities were used to estimate the reliability of the BI tree topologies.

3 RESULTS

3.1 Sequence alignments

The gene sequences of 28S rDNA D2-D3 contained 656 nucleotide sites, corresponding to the 28S sequence of the honey bee, *Apis mellifera*, from the end of Helix 531 to the beginning of Helix 589'. After alignments by ClustalW, both the number of total sites and the number of potentially parsimony informative sites in each of the four standard datasets differed (Table 3).

Table 3 Alignment statistics for four standard datasets

| Datasets | Constant sites | Variable but uninformative sites | Parsimony-informative sites | Total sites |
|----------|----------------|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------|
| I | 443 (62.75%) | 103 (14.59%) | 160 (22.66%) | 706 |
| II | 406 (56.31%) | 109 (15.12%) | 206 (28.57%) | 721 |
| III-a | 368 (51.18%) | 114 (15.86%) | 237 (32.96%) | 719 |
| III-b | 350 (48.21%) | 108 (14.88%) | 268 (36.91%) | 726 |

3.2 Tree topologies

Dataset I Monophyly of the subfamilies, except Nomioidinae, was supported by ML and BI analyses (Fig. 1). With MP, *Augochlorella pomoniella*

clustered with Nomiinae rather than Halictinae; this arrangement did not support monophyly of either Halictinae or Nomiinae (Table 4).

Table 4 Summary of tree topologies for four standard datasets from three tree reconstruction methods

| Dataset + Method | Nomiinae | Halictinae | Rophitinae | Nomiinae + Halictinae | Halictidae |
|------------------|----------|------------|------------|-----------------------|------------|
| I-ML | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| I-MP | ✗ | ✗ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| I-BI | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| II-ML | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| II-MP | ✗ | ✗ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| II-BI | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| III-a-ML | ✓ | ✗ | ✓ | ✓ | ✗✗ |
| III-a-MP | ✓ | ✗ | ✓ | ✓ | ✗✗ |
| III-a-BI | ✓ | ✗ | ✓ | ✓ | ✗✗ |
| III-b-ML | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| III-b-MP | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✗✗ |
| III-b-BI | ✓ | ✗ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |

ML: Maximum likelihood; MP: Maximum parsimony; BI: Bayesian inference. “✓” denotes that the putative monophyly of a certain taxonomic group is corroborated by our results; “✗✗” denotes that the monophyly is not obtained in our results due to the unexpected positions of some taxa; “✗” denotes the uncorroborated monophyly of Nomiinae and Halictinae due to the position of *Augochlorella pomoniella*. The position of *Nomiooides facilis* in tree topologies was neglected in this summary.

The MP and ML trees were evaluated for the extended datasets only. When *Colletes graeffei* was used as the outgroup, tree topologies were similar to those of dataset I. Using *Hylaeus proximus* as the outgroup, unresolved internal phylogenetic relationships were obtained within Halictidae. In the other trials, tree topologies were generally consistent with the accepted taxonomy except for the phylogenetic

relationships of a few taxa (e.g., *Nomiooides facilis* and *Augochlorella pomoniella*).

Dataset II The ML and BI trees (Fig. 2), resolved the monophyly of three subfamilies and their current phylogenetic relationships. Again, the monophyly of Halictinae was not supported by MP tree because of the position of *Augochlorella pomoniella*.

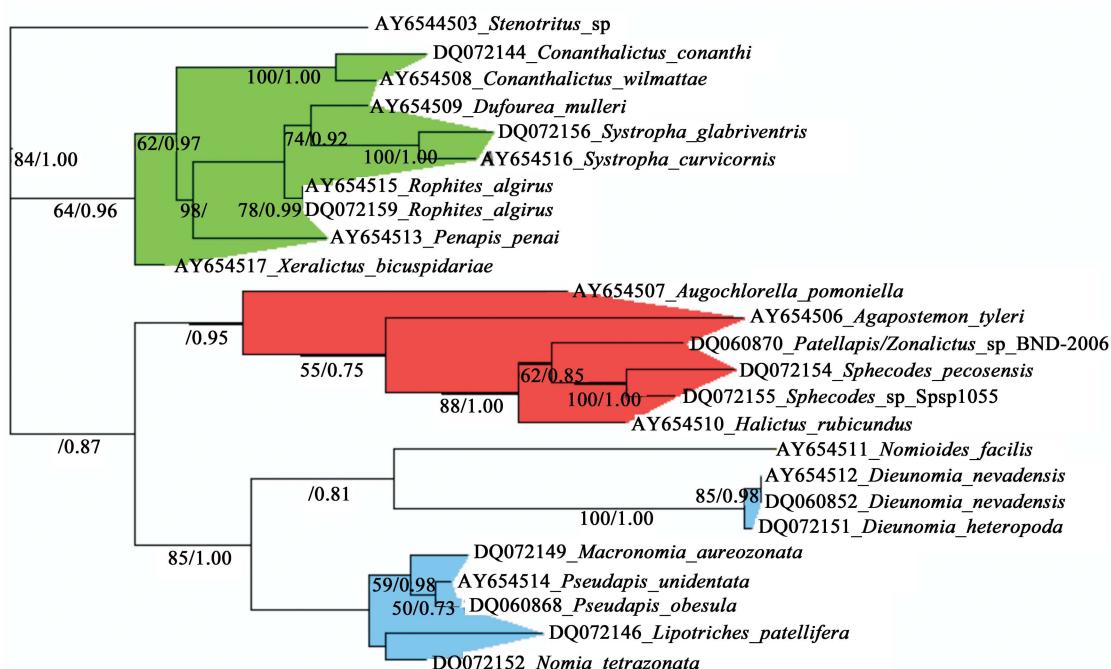


Fig. 1 Tree topology for halictid bees derived from maximum likelihood and Bayesian inference methods using DNA sequence data in the standard dataset I

Node labels are given as bootstrap values/Bayesian posterior probabilities. Values contrary to the majority rule are not shown. Blue background represents the taxa in Nomiinae; red, the Halictinae; green, the Rophitinae; gray, the outgroup; and one yellow leaf, the Nomioidinae.

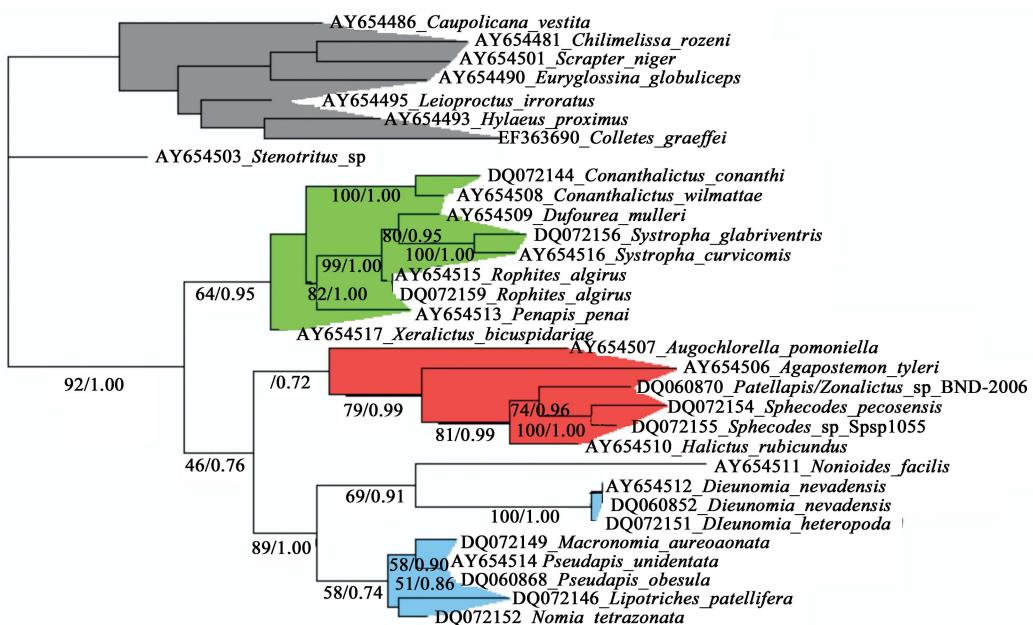


Fig. 2 Tree topology for halictid bees derived from maximum likelihood and Bayesian inference methods using DNA sequence data in standard dataset II

Node labels are given as bootstrap values/Bayesian posterior probabilities. Values contrary to the majority rule are not shown. Blue background represents the taxa in Nomiinae; red, Halictinae; green, Rophitinae; gray, the outgroup; and one yellow leaf, Nomioideinae.

Dataset III-a When four representatives of Andrenidae were added to the outgroup (dataset III-a), the monophyly of the family Halictidae was not resolved in any of the three analyses, although the monophyly of Rophitinae was always supported. In the ML and BI trees, four representatives of Andrenidae, part of the outgroup, clustered with Nomiinae + Halictinae +

Nomioides facilis as their sister group (Fig. 3). However, MP tree united the representatives of Andrenidae with the subfamily Rophitinae in a paraphyletic clade at the base of Nomiinae + Halictinae + *Nomioides facilis*. Another common characteristic of these four trees was that *Augochlorella pomoniella* clustered at the base of Nomiinae + *Nomioides facilis*.

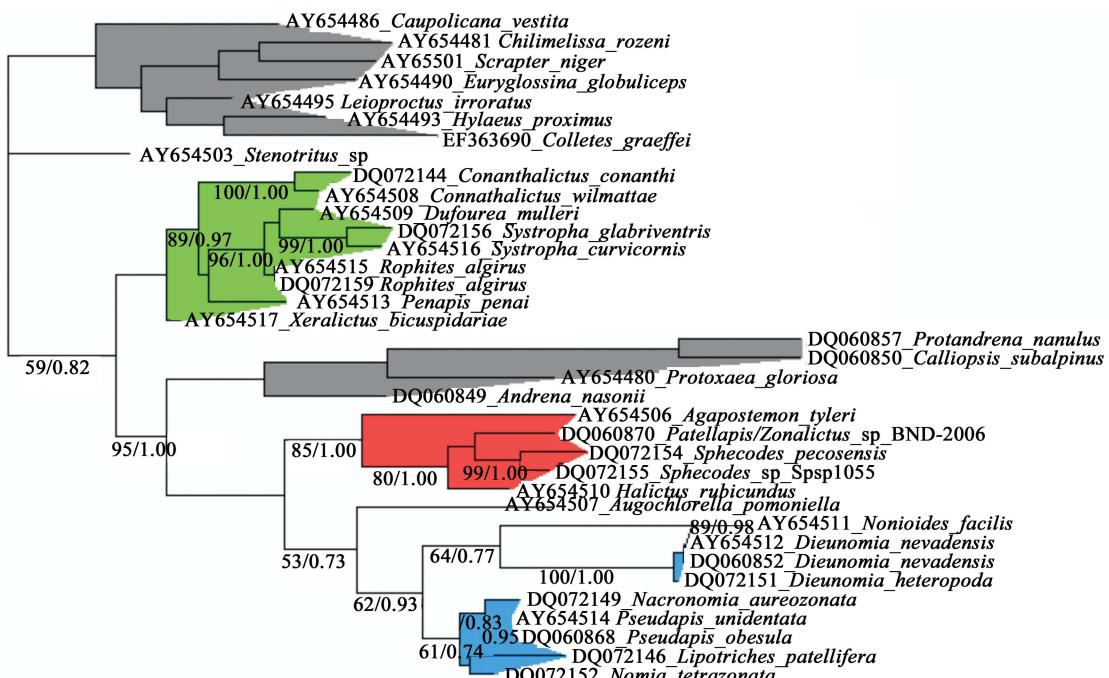


Fig. 3 Tree topology for halictid bees derived from maximum likelihood and Bayesian inference methods using DNA sequence data in standard dataset III-a

Node labels are given as bootstrap values/Bayesian posterior probabilities. Values contrary to the majority rule are not shown. Blue background represents the taxa in Nomiinae; red, the Halictinae; green, the Rophitinae; gray, the outgroup; and one yellow leaf, the Nomioideinae.

Dataset III-b When the three representatives of Megachilidae were added to the outgroup (dataset III-b), the monophyly of the family Halictidae was recovered (Fig. 4; Fig. 5) in all trees except for MP

tree, in which four representatives of Andrenidae together with the three samples of Megachilidae clustered as the sister group of Nomiinae + Halictinae + *Nomioides facilis*.

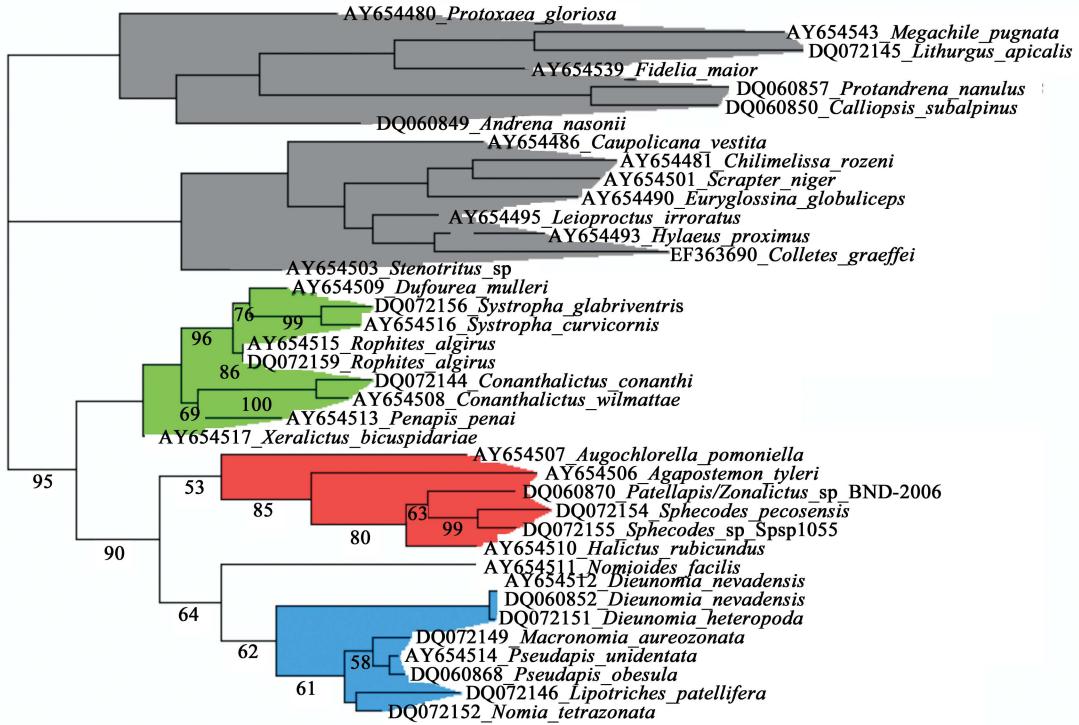


Fig. 4 Tree topology for halictid bees derived from maximum likelihood using DNA sequence data in standard dataset III-b. Node labels are bootstrap values. Blue background represents the taxa in Nomiinae; red, the Halictinae; green, the Rophitinae; gray, the outgroup; and one yellow leaf, the Nomioidinae.

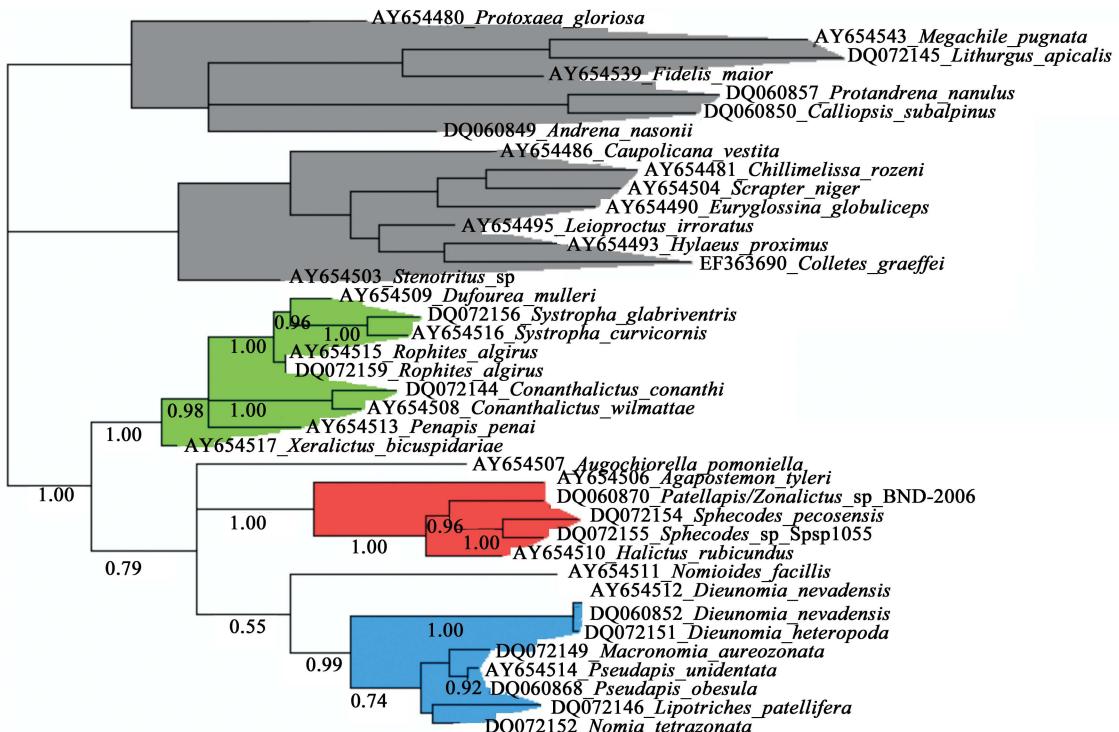


Fig. 5 Tree topology for halictid bees derived from Bayesian inference using DNA sequence data in standard dataset III-b. Noda labels are the Bayesian posterior probabilities. Blue background represents the taxa in Nomiinae; red, the Halictinae; green, the Rophitinae; gray, the outgroup; and one yellow leaf, the Nomioidinae.

4 DISCUSSION

We selected the family Halictidae as the ingroup to evaluate the effect of outgroup selection on tree reconstruction. One gene marker (28S rDNA D2-D3) was employed because of its established phylogenetic signal and established resolving power within higher levels of Halictidae. We sought to remove many factors that could affect tree topology by controlling variables such as sequence region and number of tree generations. Then, differences in tree topologies should have reflected differences in outgroup composition and method of tree reconstruction. Nevertheless, the effect of certain gene marker (*i.e.*, 28S rDNA D2-D3 in our case) cannot be removed, and further research on other genes still needs to be done in the future.

Our evaluation assumed that the putative topology of Halictidae by Danforth *et al.* was correct due to sufficient taxon sampling, the incorporation of three gene markers and the application of powerful methods of analysis (Danforth *et al.*, 2004, 2008). *Nomiooides facilis* was seldom considered in the assessment of accuracy because its usual grouping with genus *Dieunomia* may have owed to long branch attraction (Figs. 1 – 3), and/or inadequate taxon sampling. Unfortunately, only one sequence was available for Nomiooidinae. Without considering the *Nomiooides facilis*, some trees we got supported the putative phylogeny, but others did not.

Our analysis demonstrated that multiple taxa within the nearest sister group should be used when forming outgroups. Trees rooted with a greater diversity of immediate sister group species had topologies most congruent with the putative phylogeny. This conclusion is tempered by the discovery that multiple taxa from successive sister groups resulted in very unstable tree topologies, even when multiple taxa of the sister group of Halictidae were included in the outgroup. The effect was so great that more distant sister group (Andrenidae) clustered with one subclade of the ingroup, and thus rearranged the ingroup tree topology greatly. When we adopted Strategy III for outgroup formation, we obtained an untenable topology in the ingroup. Conversely, application of Strategy I on the standard dataset together with the extended datasets revealed that a single taxon in sister group could represent the outgroup, if the selected taxon accurately polarized characters in the ingroup, and depending on the method of tree reconstruction. This discovery suggested that phylogenies may be consistently reconstructed even when the outgroup contains few taxa, as long as the nearest sister group taxon is used.

Synapomorphies are the fundamental basis of

phylogeny reconstruction. Unlike many classes of morphological characters, nucleotide sequences only have five possible character states, including indels. Outgroup choice should be critical because homoplasy owing to parallel change could be a troublesome factor in tree reconstruction. In our case, Andrenidae was used as the most distantly related outgroup member to Halictidae. This arrangement effectively added outgroup taxa that fell outside of the ingroup-plus-first-outgroup (Sanderson and Shaffer, 2002). Did parallel nucleotide substitutions result in homoplasy at some nucleotide positions to the extent of causing changes in the tree? When Andrenidae was used as the outgroup in dataset III-a, key nucleotide sites had homoplastic signals that broke the monophyly of Halictidae. However, when three taxa in Megachilidae were added, much of this confusion was eliminated because the Megachilidae taxa avoided homoplastic signals to influence the tree reconstruction; the monophyly of Halictidae was recovered again. For single taxon outgroups, even the nearest sister group, homoplasy should exist (Smith, 1994), but the extent of homoplasy and the attainment of false phylogenetic relationships depends on the taxon itself. Depending on the outgroup taxon, some tree topologies were inconsistent with the putative tree (*e.g.*, extended dataset I-e), yet others were largely congruent (*e.g.*, dataset I). However, multiple taxa within the sister group could shelter homoplasy coming from certain taxon, and the whole of them tend to result in correct phylogeny.

Three different methods of tree reconstruction were employed to evaluate the consistency of tree topology for each standard dataset. Although the assumptions differ from the optimality criteria to the extent of some having advantages (*e.g.*, realism, generality, and economy of assumptions) over others (Goloboff, 2003), MP seemed to consistently provide less resolution than ML and BI approaches. However, MP produced more consistent results depending on outgroup strategy. Thus, outgroup choice may be particularly critical for model-based approaches to tree reconstruction, in particular ML and BI, at least in this case study. Further trials are required to determine whether this finding is a generality, or not.

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外群选择对隧蜂科(膜翅目:蜜蜂总科) 系统重建的影响

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摘要: 外群用于给树附根和推断祖先性状状态。通常, 来自内群的姐妹群中的多个分类单元被共同选择作为外群。为了在经验上验证这一方法, 我们采用了3种外群选择策略: 姐妹群中的单一分类单元, 姐妹群中的多个分类单元和连续姐妹群中的多个分类单元。以隧蜂科(膜翅目: 蜜蜂总科)的系统发育重建为例, 我们评估了这3种策略对树拓扑结构的影响, 包括最大似然树、最大简约树和贝叶斯树。初步结果表明: 相比其他两种策略, 采用姐妹群中的多个分类单元作为外群更有利于系统发育重建得到现已被广泛认可的隧蜂科系统发育关系; 相比最大似然法和贝叶斯法, 虽然隧蜂科系统发育关系没有被很好地解决, 但最大简约法在不同外群选择策略下得到了较为一致的拓扑结构。

关键词: 隧蜂科; 非同源相似; 单系性; 外群; 姐妹群; 系统发育

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